

INTRÖDVCTIÖ

Wer fremde Sprachen nicht kennt, weiss nichts von seiner eigenen. (Goethe)

Apprendre une langue, c'est vivre de nouveau. (French proverb)

Your appreciation of the Latin language can be considerably increased by even a limited awareness of the background sketched in this *Intrödvctiö*. The paragraphs on the position of the Latin language in the Indo-European language family provide some linguistic perspective not only for Latin but also for the Romance languages and English. The brief survey of Latin literature introduces the authors whose works are excerpted in the book's *Sententiae Antiquae*, *Locī Antiqui*, and *Locī Immutatī* and provides a literary perspective which the student may never otherwise gain. And, of course, no introduction to the language would be complete without a discussion of the Roman alphabet and pronunciation.

THE POSITION OF THE LATIN LANGUAGE IN LINGUISTIC HISTORY

Say the words "I," "me," "is," "mother," "brother," and "ten," and you are speaking words which, in one form or another, men and women of Europe and Asia have used for thousands of years. In fact, we cannot tell how old these words actually are. If their spelling and pronunciation have changed somewhat from period to period and place to place, little wonder; what does pique the imagination is the fact that the basic elements of these symbols of human thought have had the vitality to traverse such spans of time and space down to this very moment on this continent. The point is demonstrated in this considerably abbreviated and simplified table:

English	<i>I</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>mother</i>	<i>brother</i>	<i>ten</i>
Sanskrit ¹	aham	mā	asti	mātar-	bhrātar-	daśam
Greek	egō	me	esti	mētēr	phrātēr ²	deka
Latin	ego	mē	est	māter	frāter	decem
Anglo-Saxon ³	ic	mē	is	mōdor	brōthor	tien
Old Irish ⁴		mé	is	máthir	bráthir	deich
Lithuanian ⁵	aš	manė	esti	motė	broterėlis	dešimtis
Russian ⁶	ja	menja	jest'	mat'	brat	desjat'

You can see from these columns of words that the listed languages are related. And yet, with the exception of the ultimate derivation of English from Anglo-Saxon, none of these languages stems directly from another in the list. Rather, they all go back through intermediate stages to a common ancestor, which is now lost but which can be predicated on the evidence of the languages that do survive. Such languages the philologist calls **COGNATES** (Latin for "related" or, more literally, "born together," i.e., from the same ancestry). The name most commonly given to the now lost ancestor of all these "relatives," or cognate languages, is **INDO-EUROPEAN**, because its descendants are found both in or near India (Sanskrit, Iranian) and also in Europe (Greek and Latin and the Germanic, Celtic, Slavic, and Baltic languages).⁷ The Indo-European languages for which we have the oldest surviving documents are Sanskrit, Iranian, Greek, and Latin, and these documents go back centuries before the time of Christ. In addition to the common vocabulary illustrated in the above chart, this large family of languages shares many **INFLECTIONS**, or word-endings, in common. An **INFLECTED LANGUAGE** is one in which the nouns, pronouns, adjectives, and verbs have variable endings that indicate the relationship of the words to each other in a sentence. In particular, note that Anglo-Saxon, like Latin, was an inflected language but that its descendant English has lost most of its inflections (though some survive, such as "who," "he," "she" for subjects, vs. "whom," "him," "her" for objects, "she loves" for third person singular, vs. "I love," "you love," etc.).

¹The language of the sacred writings of ancient India, parent of the modern Indo-European languages of India.

²Though cognate with the other words in this column, classical Greek *phrātēr* meant *member of a clan*.

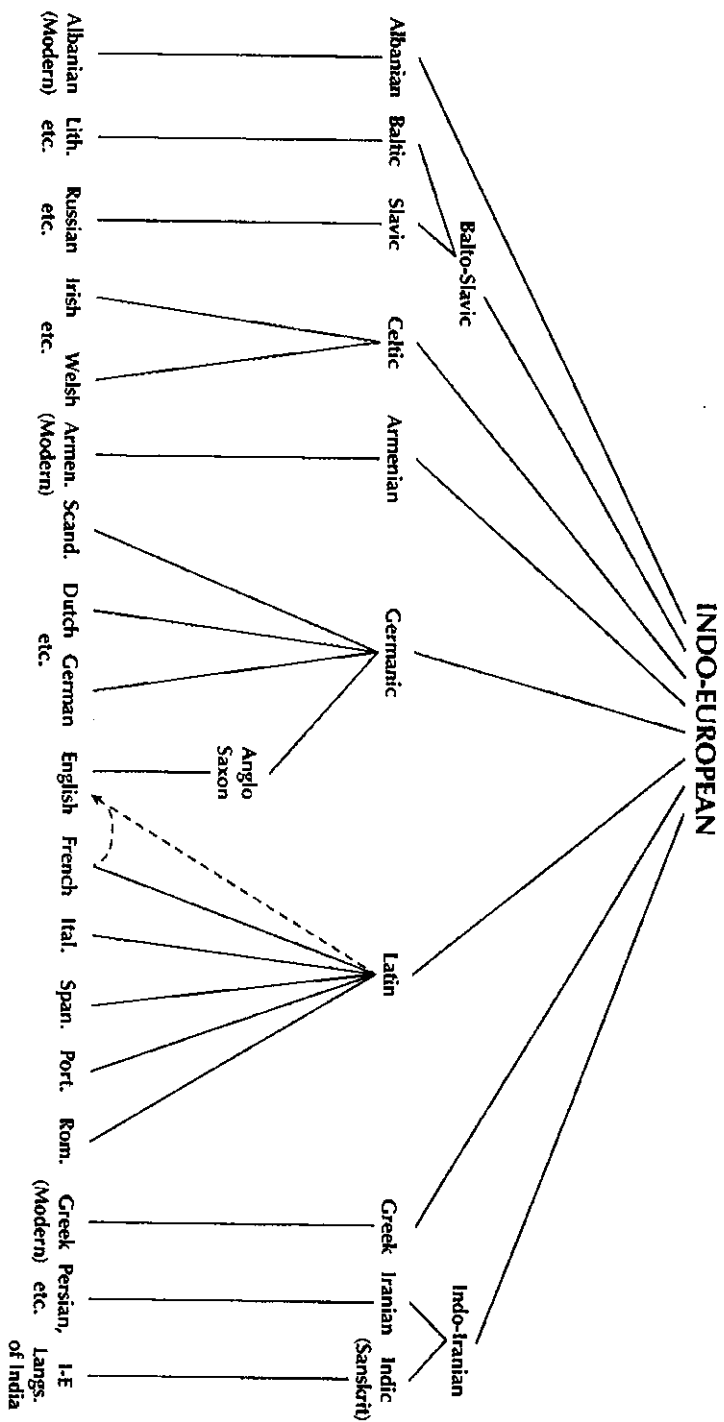
³As an example of the Germanic languages; others are Gothic, German, Dutch, Danish, Norwegian, Swedish, Icelandic, English.

⁴As an example of the Celtic languages; others are Welsh, Gaulish, Breton, Scots (Gaelic). Old Irish *mé* in the chart is actually nominative case, equivalent to "I" in meaning and usage but to "me" in form.

⁵As an example of the Baltic group; others are Latvian and Old Prussian.

⁶As an example of the Slavic group; others are Polish, Bulgarian, Czech.

⁷Note that many world languages (e.g., the Semitic languages, Egyptian, Basque, Chinese, the native languages of Africa and the Americas) lie outside the Indo-European family.



In the interest of simplicity a number of languages and intermediate stages have been omitted. Latin, for example, was only one of a number of Italic dialects, including Oscan and Umbrian, which it eventually submerges; among the Greeks there were likewise several dialects (Aeolic, Attic, Ionic, Doric). Two branches of the Indo-European language family, Anatolian and Tocharian, are now extinct and not shown on the chart.

The difference between **DERIVED** (from roots meaning "to flow downstream from" a source) and **COGNATE** languages can be demonstrated by the relationship of the Romance languages to Latin and to each other. Here we are in the realm of recorded history and can see that with the Roman political conquest of such districts as Gaul (France), Spain, and Dacia (Romania) there occurred also a Roman linguistic conquest. Out of this victorious ancient Latin as spoken by the common people (*vulgus*, hence "vulgar" Latin) grew the Romance languages, such as French, Spanish, Portuguese, Romanian, Occitan (or Provençal), and, of course, Italian. All these languages are "derived" from Latin and thus "cognate" with each other.

Parent	Cognate Romance Derivatives				
Latin	Italian	Spanish	French	Portuguese	English Meaning
<i>amicus</i>	<i>amico</i>	<i>amigo</i>	<i>ami</i>	<i>amigo</i>	friend
<i>liber</i>	<i>libro</i>	<i>libro</i>	<i>livre</i>	<i>livro</i>	book
<i>tempus</i>	<i>tempo</i>	<i>tiempo</i>	<i>temps</i>	<i>tempo</i>	time
<i>manus</i>	<i>mano</i>	<i>mano</i>	<i>main</i>	<i>mão</i>	hand
<i>bucca</i>	<i>bocca</i>	<i>boca</i>	<i>bouche</i>	<i>boca</i> (mouth)	mouth (cheek in classical Lat.)
<i>caballus</i>	<i>cavallo</i>	<i>caballo</i>	<i>cheval</i>	<i>cavalo</i>	horse
<i>filius</i>	<i>figlio</i>	<i>hijo</i>	<i>fil</i>	<i>filho</i>	son
<i>ille</i>	<i>il</i>	<i>el</i>	<i>le</i>	<i>o</i>	the (that in classical Lat.)
<i>illa</i>	<i>la</i>	<i>la</i>	<i>la</i>	<i>a</i>	the (that in classical Lat.)
<i>quattuor</i>	<i>quattro</i>	<i>cuatro</i>	<i>quatre</i>	<i>quatro</i>	four
<i>bonus</i>	<i>buono</i>	<i>bueno</i>	<i>bon</i>	<i>bom</i>	good
<i>bene</i>	<i>bene</i>	<i>bien</i>	<i>bien</i>	<i>bem</i>	well (adv.)
<i>facere</i>	<i>fare</i>	<i>hacer</i>	<i>faire</i>	<i>fazer</i>	make, do
<i>dicere</i>	<i>dire</i>	<i>decir</i>	<i>dire</i>	<i>dizer</i>	say
<i>legere</i>	<i>leggere</i>	<i>leer</i>	<i>lire</i>	<i>ler</i>	read

Although English ultimately stems from Anglo-Saxon, which is cognate with Latin, there is much more than that to the story. Anglo-Saxon itself had early borrowed a few words from Latin; and then in the 7th century more Latin (including many Latinized Greek and Hebrew words drawn from Jerome's "Vulgate" translation of the Bible) entered the language as a result of the work of St. Augustine (the Lesser), who had been sent by Pope Gregory to Christianize the Angles. After the victory of William the Conqueror in 1066, Norman French became the polite language and Anglo-Saxon was held in low esteem as the tongue of vanquished men and serfs—no longer a literary language, but simply the speech of humble daily life. Some two centuries later, however, as the descendants of the Normans finally amalgamated with the English natives, the Anglo-Saxon language reasserted

itself; but in its poverty it had to borrow hundreds of French words (literary, intellectual, and cultural) before it could become the language of literature. Borrow it did abundantly, and in the 13th and 14th centuries this development produced what is called Middle English, known especially from Chaucer, who died in 1400. Along with the adoption of these Latin-rooted French words there was also some borrowing directly from Latin itself, and the renewed interest in the classics which characterized the Renaissance naturally intensified this trend during the 16th and the 17th centuries.⁸ From that time to the present Latin has continued to be a source of new words, particularly for the scientist but even for ad writers and those marketing folks who invent product names!

Consequently, since English through Anglo-Saxon is cognate with Latin and yet also has directly or indirectly borrowed so many words from the language, our own vocabulary contains thousands of Latin cognates and thousands of derivatives. English "brother," for example, is cognate with Latin *frāter*, while "fraternal" clearly is derived from it. An important linguistic principle of sound change in the evolution of the Germanic languages, known as GRIMM'S LAW, describes shifts in consonants such as p to f, hard c (k) to h, and d to t, which account for the fact that Latin-English cognates like *pēs/ped-*/"foot" and *cor/cord-*/"heart" have a common origin. Following are a variety of examples of English cognates and derivatives of Latin words:

Latin	English Derivative	English Cognate
<i>māter</i>	maternal	mother
<i>duo</i>	dual, duet	two
<i>dēns, stem dent-</i>	dental	tooth
<i>pēs, stem ped-</i>	pedal	foot
<i>cor, stem cord-</i>	cordial	heart
<i>ferō</i>	fertile	bear

Here you see one of the reasons for the richness of our vocabulary, and the longer you study Latin the more keenly you will realize what a limited language ours would be without the Latin element. Despite the brevity of this survey you can comprehend the general position of Latin in European linguistic history and

⁸Thomas Wilson (16th century) says: "The unlearned or foolish fantastical, that smells but of learning (such fellows as have been learned men in their days), will so Latin their tongues, that the simple cannot but wonder at their talk, and think surely they speak by some revelation." Sir Thomas Browne (17th century) says: "If elegancy still proceedeth, and English pens maintain that stream we have of late observed to flow from many, we shall within a few years be fain to learn Latin to understand English, and a work will prove of equal facility in either." These statements are quoted by permission from the "Brief History of the English Language" by Hadley and Kittredge in Webster's *New International Dictionary*, Second Edition, copyright, 1934, 1939, 1945, 1950, 1953, 1954, by G. & C. Merriam Co.

something of its continuing importance to us today. It is the cognate of many languages and the parent of many, and can even be called the adoptive parent of English.

A BRIEF SURVEY OF LATIN LITERATURE

Since throughout this entire book you will be reading sentences and passages excerpted from Latin literature, a brief outline is here sketched to provide an overview of both the nature and the extent of this great literary corpus. Following is a conventional chronology:

- I. Archaic through Early Republican Period (down to ca. 80 B.C.)
- II. Late Republican and Augustan Period (the "Golden Age": 80 B.C.-A.D. 14)
 - A. Ciceronian Period (80-43 B.C.)
 - B. Augustan Period (43 B.C.-A.D. 14)
- III. Post-Augustan Period (the "Silver Age": A.D. 14-138)
- IV. Patristic Period (late 2nd-5th cent.)
- V. Medieval Period (6th-14th cent.)
- VI. Renaissance (15th cent.) to the Present

ARCHAIC THROUGH EARLY REPUBLICAN PERIOD (DOWN TO CA. 80 B.C.)

The apogee of Greek civilization, including the highest development of its magnificent literature and art, was reached during the 5th and the 4th centuries before Christ. In comparison, Rome during those centuries had little to offer. Our fragmentary evidence shows only a rough, accentual native meter called Saturnian, some native comic skits, and a simple, practical prose for records and speeches.

In the 3d century B.C., however, the expansion of Roman power brought the Romans into contact with Greek civilization. Somehow the hard-headed, politically and legally minded Romans were fascinated by what they found, and the writers among them went to school to learn Greek literature. From this time on, Greek literary forms, meters, rhetorical devices, subjects, and ideas had a tremendous and continuing influence on Roman literature, even as it developed its own character and originality in a great many ways.

In fact, the Romans themselves did not hesitate to admit as much. Although the Romans now composed epics, tragedies, satires, and speeches, the greatest extant accomplishments of this period of apprenticeship to Greek models are the comedies of Plautus (ca. 254-184 B.C.) and Terence (185-159 B.C.). These were

aster, founder of the religion of the fire-worshippers. Portions of these sacred books may have been composed as early as 1000 B.C.

Modern Persian is a living representative of the old Iranian speech. It has naturally been much modified by time, particularly through the introduction of many words from the Arabic.

c. *The Armenian*, spoken in Armenia, the district near the Black Sea and Caucasus Mountains. This is closely related to the Iranian, and was formerly classified under that group. It is now recognized as entitled to independent rank. The earliest literary productions of the Armenian language date from the fourth and fifth centuries of the Christian era. To this period belong the translation of the Scriptures and the old Armenian Chronicle. The Armenian is still a living language, though spoken in widely separated districts, owing to the scattered locations in which the Armenians are found to-day.

d. *The Tokharian*. This language, only recently discovered and identified as Indo-European, was spoken in the districts east of the Caspian Sea (modern Turkestan). While in some respects closely related to the three Asiatic branches of the Indo-European family already considered, in others it shows close relationship to the European members of the family. The literature of the Tokharian, so far as it has been brought to light, consists mainly of translations from the Sanskrit, sacred writings, and dates from the seventh century of our era.

EUROPEAN MEMBERS OF THE INDO-EUROPEAN FAMILY.

e. *The Greek*. The Greeks had apparently long been settled in Greece and Asia Minor as far back as 1500 B.C. Probably they arrived in these districts much earlier. The earliest literary productions are the Iliad and the Odyssey of Homer, which very likely go back to the ninth century B.C. From the sixth century B.C. on, Greek literature is continuous. Modern Greek, when we consider its distance in time from antiquity, is remarkably similar to the classical Greek of the fourth and fifth centuries B.C.

f. *The Italic Group*. The Italic Group embraces the Umbrian, spoken in the northern part of the Italian peninsula (in ancient Umbria); the Latin, spoken in the central part (in Latium); the Oscan, spoken in the southern part (in Samnium, Campania, Lucania, etc.). Besides these, there were a number of minor dialects, such as the Marsian, Volscian, etc. Of all these (barring the Latin), there are no remains except a few scanty inscriptions. Latin literature begins shortly after 250 B.C. in the works of Livius Andronicus, Naevius, and Plautus, although a few brief inscriptions are found belonging to a much earlier period.

g. *The Celtic*. In the earliest historical times of which we have any record, the Celts occupied extensive portions of northern Italy, as well as certain areas in central Europe; but after the second century B.C., they are found only in Gaul and the British Isles. Among the chief languages belonging to the Celtic group are the Gallic, spoken in ancient Gaul; the Breton, still spoken in the modern French province of Brittany; the Irish, which is still extensively spoken in Ireland among the common people; the Welsh; and the Gaelic of the Scotch Highlanders.

h. *The Teutonic*. The Teutonic group is very extensive. Its earliest representative is the Gothic, preserved for us in the translation of the scriptures by the Gothic Bishop Ulfilas (about 375 A.D.). Other languages belonging to this group are the Old Norse, once spoken in Scandinavia, and from which are descended the modern Icelandic, Norwegian, Swedish, Danish; German; Dutch; Anglo-Saxon, from which is descended the modern English.

i. *The Balto-Slavic*. The languages of this group belong to eastern Europe. The Baltic division of the group embraces the Lithuanian and Lettic, spoken to-day by the people living on the eastern shores of the Baltic Sea. The earliest literary productions of these languages date from the sixteenth century. The Slavic division comprises a large number of languages, the most important of which are the Russian, the Bulgarian, the

Serbian, the Bohemian, the Polish. All of these were late in developing a literature, the earliest to do so being the Old Bulgarian, in which we find a translation of the Bible dating from the ninth century.

j. The Albanian, spoken in Albania and parts of Greece, Italy, and Sicily. This is most nearly related to the Balto-Slavic group, and is characterized by the very large proportion of words borrowed from Latin, Turkish, Greek, and Slavic. Its literature does not begin till the seventeenth century.

2. *Home of the Indo-European Family*.—Despite the many outward differences of the various languages of the foregoing groups, a careful examination of their structure and vocabulary demonstrates their intimate relationship and proves overwhelmingly their descent from a common parent. We must believe, therefore, that at one time there existed a homogeneous clan or tribe of people speaking a language from which all the above enumerated languages are descended. The precise location of the home of this ancient tribe cannot be determined. For a long time it was assumed that it was in central Asia north of the Himalaya Mountains, but this view has long been rejected as untenable. It arose from the exaggerated importance attached for a long while to Sanskrit. The great antiquity of the earliest literary remains of the Sanskrit (the Vedic Hymns) suggested that the inhabitants of India were geographically close to the original seat of the Indo-European Family. Hence the home was sought in the elevated plateau to the north. To-day it is thought that central or southeastern Europe is much more likely to have been the cradle of the Indo-European parent-speech, though anything like a logical demonstration of so difficult a problem can hardly be expected.

As to the size and extent of the original tribe whence the Indo-European languages have sprung, we can only speculate. It probably was not large, and very likely formed a compact racial and linguistic unit for centuries, possibly for thousands of years.

The time at which Indo-European unity ceased and the vari-

ous individual languages began their separate existence, is likewise shrouded in obscurity. When we consider that the separate existence of the Sanskrit may antedate 2500 B.C., it may well be believed that people speaking the Indo-European parent-speech belonged to a period as far back as 5000 B.C., or possibly earlier.

3. *Stages in the Development of the Latin Language*.—The earliest remains of the Latin language are found in certain very archaic inscriptions. The oldest of these belong to the sixth and seventh centuries B.C. Roman literature does not begin till several centuries later, viz. shortly after the middle of the third century B.C. We may recognize the following clearly marked periods of the language and literature:

a. The Preliminary Period, from the earliest times down to 240 B.C., when Livius Andronicus brought out his first play. For this period our knowledge of Latin depends almost exclusively upon the scanty inscriptions that have survived from this remote time. Few of these are of any length.

b. The Archaic Period, from Livius Andronicus (240 B.C.) to Cicero (81 B.C.). Even in this age the language had already become highly developed as a medium of expression. In the hands of certain gifted writers it had even become a vehicle of power and beauty. In its simplicity, however, it naturally marks a contrast with the more finished diction of later days. To this period belong:

Livius Andronicus, about 275-204 B.C. (Translation of Homer's *Odyssey*; Tragedies).

Plautus, about 250-184 B.C. (Comedies).

Naevius, about 270-199 B.C. ("Punic War"; Comedies).

Ennius, 239-169 B.C. ("Annals"; Tragedies).

Terence, about 190-159 B.C. (Comedies).

Lucilius, 180-103 B.C. (Satires).

Pacuvius, 220-about 130 B.C. (Tragedies).

Accius, 170-about 85 B.C. (Tragedies).

c. *The Golden Age*, from Cicero (81 B.C.) to the death of Augustus (14 A.D.). In this period the language, especially in the hands of Cicero, reaches a high degree of stylistic perfection. Its vocabulary, however, has not yet attained its greatest fullness and range. Traces of the diction of the Archaic Period are often noticed, especially in the poets, who naturally sought their effects by reverting to the speech of olden times. Literature reached its culmination in this epoch, especially in the great poets of the Augustan Age. The following writers belong here:

Lucretius, about 95-55 B.C. (Poem on Epicurean Philosophy).

Catullus, 87-about 54 B.C. (Poet).

Cicero, 106-43 B.C. (Orations; Rhetorical Works; Philosophical Works; Letters).

Caesar, 102-44 B.C. (Commentaries on Gallic and Civil Wars).

Sallust, 86-36 B.C. (Historian).

Nepos, about 100-about 30 B.C. (Historian).

Virgil, 70-19 B.C. ("Aeneid"; "Georgics"; "Bucolics").

Horace, 65-8 B.C. (Odes; Satires; Epistles).

Tibullus, about 54-19 B.C. (Poet).

Propertius, about 50-about 15 B.C. (Poet).

Ovid, 43 B.C.-17 A.D. ("Metamorphoses" and other poems).

Livy, 59 B.C.-17 A.D. (Historian).

d. *The Silver Latinity*, from the death of Augustus (14 A.D.) to the death of Marcus Aurelius (180 A.D.). This period is marked by a certain reaction against the excessive precision of the previous age. It had become the practice to pay too much attention to standardized forms of expression, and to leave too little play to the individual writer. In the healthy reaction against this formalism, greater freedom of expression now manifests itself. We note also the introduction of idioms from the

colloquial language, along with many poetical words and usages. The following authors deserve mention:

Phaedrus, flourished about 40 A.D. (Fables in Verse),
Velleius Paterculus, flourished about 30 A.D. (Historian).

Lucan, 39-65 A.D. (Poem on the Civil War).

Seneca, about 1-65 A.D. (Tragedies; Philosophical Works).

Pliny the Elder, 23-79 A.D. ("Natural History").

Pliny the Younger, 62-about 115 A.D. ("Letters").

Martial, about 45-about 104 A.D. (Epigrams).

Quintilian, about 35-about 100 A.D. (Treatise on Oratory and Education).

Tacitus, about 55-about 118 A.D. (Historian).

Juvenal, about 55-about 135 A.D. (Satirist).

Suetonius, about 75-about 150 A.D. ("Lives of the Twelve Caesars").

Minucius Felix, flourished about 160 A.D. (First Christian Apologist).

Apuleius, 125-about 200 B.C. ("Metamorphoses," or "Golden Ass").

e. *The Archaising Period*. This period is characterized by a conscious imitation of the Archaic Period of the second and first centuries B.C.; it overlaps the preceding period, and is of importance from a linguistic rather than from a literary point of view. Of writers who manifest the archaizing tendency most conspicuously may be mentioned Fronto, from whose hand we have a collection of letters addressed to the Emperors Antoninus Pius and Marcus Aurelius; also Aulus Gellius, author of the "Attic Nights." Both of these writers flourished in the second half of the second century A.D.

f. *The Period of the Decline*, from 180 to the close of literary activity in the sixth century A.D. This period is characterized by rapid and radical alterations in the language. The features of the conversational idiom of the lower strata of society invade

the literature, while in the remote provinces, such as Gaul, Spain, Africa, the language suffers from the incorporation of local peculiarities. Representative writers of this period are:

Tertullian, about 160-about 240 A.D. (Christian Writer).

Cyprian, about 200-258 A.D. (Christian Writer).

Lactantius, flourished about 300 A.D. (Defense of Christianity).

Ausonius, about 310-about 395 A.D. (Poet).

Jerome, 340-420 A.D. (Translator of the Scriptures).

Ambrose, about 340-397 (Christian Father).

Augustine, 354-430 (Christian Father—"City of God").

Prudentius, flourished 400 A.D. (Christian Poet).

Claudian, flourished 400 A.D. (Poet).

Boëthius, about 480-524 A.D. ("Consolation of Philosophy").

4. Subsequent History of the Latin Language.—After the sixth century A.D. Latin divides into two entirely different streams. One of these is the literary language maintained in courts, in the Church, and among scholars. This was no longer the language of people in general, and as time went on, became more and more artificial. The other stream is the colloquial idiom of the common people, which developed ultimately in the provinces into the modern so-called Romance idioms. These are the Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, French, Provençal (spoken in Provence, *i.e.* southeastern France), the Rhaeto-Romanic (spoken in the Canton of the Grisons in Switzerland), and the Roumanian, spoken in modern Roumania and adjacent districts. All these Romance languages bear the same relation to the Latin as the different groups of the Indo-European family of languages bear to the parent speech.

PART I. SOUNDS, ACCENT, QUANTITY.

THE ALPHABET.

1. The Latin Alphabet is the same as the English, except that the Latin has no *w*.

1. ~~*x* occurs only in *Kalendar* and a few other words; *y* and *z* were introduced from the Greek about 50 B.C., and occur only in foreign words—chiefly Greek.~~

2. With the Romans, who regularly employed only capitals, I served both as vowel and consonant; so also *V*. For us, however, it is more convenient to distinguish the vowel and consonant sounds, and to write *i* and *u* for the former, *j* and *v* for the latter. Yet some scholars prefer to employ *i* and *u* in the function of consonants as well as vowels.

CLASSIFICATION OF SOUNDS.

2. 1. The Vowels are *a, e, i, o, u, y*. The other letters are Consonants. The Diphthongs are *ae, oe, oi, au, eu, ui*.

2. Consonants are further subdivided into Mutes, Liquids, Nasals, and Spirants.

3. The Mutes are *p, t, c, k, q; b, d, g; ph, th, ch*. Of these,—

a) *p, t, c, k, q* are voiceless,¹ *i.e.* sounded *without* voice or vibration of the vocal cords.

b) *b, d, g* are voiced,² *i.e.* sounded *with* vibration of the vocal cords.

¹ For 'voiceless,' 'surd,' 'hard,' or 'tenuis' are sometimes used.

² For 'voiced,' 'sonant,' 'soft,' or 'media' are sometimes used.